

TET1 may contribute to hypoxia-induced epithelial to mesenchymal transition of endometrial epithelial cells in endometriosis

Jingni Wu¹, Xidie Li¹, Hongyan Huang¹, Xiaomeng Xia¹, Mengmeng Zhang¹, Xiaoling Fang^{Corresp. 1}

¹ Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, The Second Xiangya Hospital, Central South University, Changsha, Hunan, China

Corresponding Author: Xiaoling Fang
Email address: fxlfxl0510@csu.edu.cn

Background. Endometriosis (EMs) is a non-malignant gynecological disease, whose pathogenesis remains to be clarified. Recent studies have found that hypoxia induces epithelial-mesenchymal transition (EMT) as well as epigenetic modification in EMs. However, the relationship between EMT and demethylation modification under hypoxia status in EMs remains unknown.

Methods. The expression of N-cadherin, E-cadherin and TET1 in normal endometria, eutopic endometria and ovarian endometriomas was assessed by immunohistochemistry and immunofluorescence double staining. 5-hmC was detected by fluorescence-based ELISA kit using a specific 5-hmC antibody. Overexpression and inhibition of TET1 or hypoxia-inducible factor 2 α (HIF-2 α) were performed by plasmid and siRNA transfection. The expression of HIF-2 α , TET1 and EMT markers in Ishikawa (ISK) cells (widely used as endometrial epithelial cells) was evaluated by western blotting. The interaction of HIF-2 α and TET1 was analyzed by chromatin immunoprecipitation.

Results. Demethylation enzyme TET1 (ten-eleven translocation1) was elevated in glandular epithelium of ovarian endometrioma, along with the activation of EMT (increased expression of N-cadherin, and decreased expression of E-cadherin) and global increase of epigenetic modification marker 5-hmC(5-hydroxymethylcytosine). Besides, endometriosis lesions had more TET1 and N-cadherin co-localized cells. Further study showed that ISK cells exhibited enhanced EMT, and increased expression of TET1 and HIF-2 α under hypoxic condition. Hypoxia-induced EMT was partly regulated by TET1 and HIF-2 α . HIF-2 α inhibition mitigated TET1 expression changes provoked by hypoxia.

Conclusions. Hypoxia induces the expression of TET1 regulated by HIF-2 α , thus may promote EMT in endometriosis.

1 **TET1 may contribute to hypoxia-induced epithelial to mesenchymal transition of**
2 **endometrial epithelial cells in endometriosis**

3 Jingni Wu¹, Xidie Li¹, Hongyan Huang¹, Xiaomeng Xia¹, Mengmeng Zhang¹, Xiaoling Fang^{1*}

4

5 1 Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, The Second Xiangya Hospital, Central South
6 University, Changsha 410011, China

7 Corresponding Author: Email: fxlfxl0510@csu.edu.cn

8

9 **Abstract**

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18 2 α (HIF-2 α) were performed by plasmid and siRNA transfection. The expression of HIF-2 α , TET1
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25 modification marker 5-hmC(5-hydroxymethylcytosine). Besides, endometriosis lesions had more
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32

33 **Keywords**

34 Endometriosis, TET1, EMT, HIF-2 α

35

36 **Introduction**

37 Endometriosis is a chronic and non-malignant gynecological disease characterized by the growth
38 of endometrial glands and stroma outside the uterus (Giudice, 2010). It exhibits cancer-like
39 features, such as cell proliferation and metastatic invasion. Endometriosis is a major contributor to
40 pelvic pain and infertility (Mahmood & Templeton, 1991). Although the etiology of endometriosis
41 is still unclear, retrograde menstrual reflux is the widely accepted hypothesis for the mechanism
42 of endometriosis. This theory states that retrograded endometrial tissues must migrate, invade and

43 survive outside the cavity of uterus, then establish new endometriosis lesions. However, little is
44 known about the molecular events that lead to the development of endometriosis.

45 Due to lack of hormone and blood supply, the retrograded endometrial debris during
46 menstruation is in hypoxic status (Maybin & Critchley, 2015). Hypoxia plays a role in the
47 migration and invasive of endometrial epithelial cells in endometriosis (Xiong et al., 2016). It
48 probably induces the survival of retrograded endometrial debris and angiogenesis in implanted
49 ectopic endometrial lesions (Wu et al., 2007). That is, the hypoxia microenvironment may
50 contribute to the migration, invasion, and ectopic implant formation of the eutopic endometrial
51 epithelial cells. Therefore, hypoxia has been regarded as an important stimulus of the pathological
52 process of endometriosis. Hypoxia can stabilize hypoxia-inducible factors (HIFs, including HIF-
53 1α and HIF- 2α), which are the most significant and sensitive mediators of hypoxia-induced cellular
54 responses. Stabilized HIFs dimerize with their constitutively stabilized partner, HIF- 1β , and
55 regulate the expression of the target gene, thereby leading to hypoxia-induced phenotypes (Hsiao,
56 2015; Jain et al., 2018). However, few studies have investigated the role of the transcription factor
57 HIF- 2α in endometriosis.

58 Studies have shown that hypoxia promotes the epithelial to mesenchymal transition (EMT)
59 and enhances endometrial cell migration and invasion in endometriosis (Liu et al., 2017, 2018).
60 EMT is a process by which epithelial cells lose polarity and cell-to-cell contacts and transform into
61 mesenchymal cells with high motility. This process is characterized by the downregulation of the
62 epithelial marker, E-cadherin, and the upregulation of mesenchymal markers, N-cadherin and
63 vimentin (Lamouille, Xu & Derynck, 2014), which may occur in EMs (Matsuzaki & Darcha,

64 2012). EMT endows cells with migratory and invasive properties, a prerequisite for the
65 establishment of endometriotic lesions (Matsuzaki & Darcha, 2012; Xiong et al., 2016).

66 Epigenetic alterations of chromatin (including DNA methylation, histone modifications, and
67 non-coding RNAs regulation) are proposed to facilitate EMT in many diseases. Aberrations in
68 DNA methylation are associated with EMT and tumorigenesis under hypoxia conditions (Camuzi
69 et al., 2019). However, in endometriosis, the relationship between EMT and DNA methylation
70 under hypoxia status remains largely unknown. The dynamic balance between methylation and
71 demethylation is crucial for various biological processes (Jones, 2012). The altered expression of
72 the demethylation enzyme ten-eleven translocation (TET1) disrupts this balance (Lorsbach et al.,
73 2003), leading to aberrant DNA methylation patterns, which is seen in many human diseases, such
74 as cancer (Baylin & Jones, 2011). TET1 enzymes iteratively oxidize 5-methylcytosine (5-mC) to
75 5-hydroxymethylcytosine (5-hmC), thereby contributing to CpG island demethylation in specific
76 gene promoters (Wu & Zhang, 2017). TET1 is involved in cell migration, differentiation, and
77 oncogenesis (Yang et al., 2015). A recent study has shown that TET genes are dysregulated in
78 endometriosis (Roca et al., 2016). However, the function of TET1 in endometriosis is not yet fully
79 understood.

80 Our study investigated for the first time the role and mechanism of TET1 in regulating the
81 EMT process of endometrial epithelial cells under hypoxic conditions. We hypothesized that
82 hypoxia may increase TET1 expression, mediated by HIF-2 α , thus potentially inducing the EMT
83 of endometrial epithelial cells and contributing to the development of endometriosis. An
84 infographic of this work is shown in **Figure 1**.

85 **Materials and methods**

86 **Patients and sample collection**

87 The patients recruited in the study were women of childbearing age from the Second Xiangya
88 Hospital. Patients with any hormonal-dependent disease, irregular menstrual cycles and those who
89 took steroids and GnRH agonists for the past six months were excluded. The endometrial samples
90 were obtained from these patients and were all confirmed in the early proliferation stage by
91 pathological examination. This study was approved by the Human Ethics Committee of Second
92 Xiangya Hospital, Central South University. Written informed consent was obtained from all the
93 patients (Ref. No. 2016-243).

94 Different types of endometriotic lesions may have different pathogeneses (Nisolle & Donnez,
95 1997). Ovarian endometriosis lesions are more correlated with hypoxia and angiogenic factors
96 (Filippi et al., 2016). Hence, we focused on the ovarian endometrioma in this study. Fifteen ovarian
97 endometriomas and fifteen eutopic endometria (from the same group of women with ovarian
98 endometriosis), and fifteen samples of normal endometria were used for the
99 immunohistochemistry. The stages of endometriosis were classified according to the rASRM
100 classification criteria during the procedure of laparoscopy. Clinical characteristics of the patients
101 are shown in **Table 1**. Besides, these samples were fixed in 10% buffered formalin and embedded
102 in paraffin for immunohistochemistry analysis.

103 **Immunohistochemistry (IHC)**

104 Immunohistochemistry staining was performed on paraffin-embedded blocks of eutopic
105 endometria, ovarian endometriomas and normal endometria. 5- μ m-thick tissue sections were

106 deparaffinized in xylene and rehydrated in graded ethanol, and antigen retrieval was performed in
107 0.01 mol/l sodium citrate buffer (pH 6.0) using a pressure cooker. Sections were then treated with
108 3% hydrogen peroxide for 10 min to block endogenous peroxidase. After rinsing in PBST, sections
109 were blocked in 5% bovine serum albumin for 30 min, then incubated overnight at 4°C with
110 primary antibodies. The second day, sections were incubated with horseradish peroxidase (HRP)-
111 conjugated secondary anti-rabbit IgG for 30 min after rinsing for three times. Antigen-antibody
112 reactions were detected by the HRP-catalyzed reaction with 3,3'-diaminobenzidine (DAB)
113 (Beyotime Biotechnology, Shanghai, China). Finally, the sections were counterstained with
114 hematoxylin and analyzed by optical microscopy. Tyramide signal amplification (TSA) technique
115 was used to enhance the sensitivity of IHC. The following primary antibodies were applied: N-
116 cadherin (#66219-1-AP, proteintech, Wuhan, China, 1:1000), E-cadherin (#20874-1-AP,
117 proteintech, Wuhan, China, 1:2000) and TET1 (ab191698, Abcam, Cambridge, UK, 1:1000).

118 **DNA isolation and determination of global 5-hmC levels**

119 Genomic DNA from human endometrium and endometriosis lesions were isolated and purified
120 using the CWBIO Genomic DNA kit according to the manufacturer's instructions. The
121 concentration and quality of the DNA were estimated by agarose electrophoresis and UV
122 absorption analysis. Global 5-hmC levels of this isolated genomic DNA were determined with a
123 fluorescence-based Enzyme Linked Immunosorbent Assay (ELISA) kit using a specific 5-hmC
124 antibody (Epigentek, Farmingdale, NY, USA), according to the manufacturer's recommendations.
125 200 ng of total genomic DNA was applied for this assay. The 5-hmC quantities in these DNA
126 samples were analyzed based on the OD value generated by a microplate reader compared to

127 control DNA in the kit. All samples were run in duplicate. These data were obtained from six
128 normal endometria and six eutopic endometria and six ovarian endometriomas.

129 **Immunofluorescence double staining**

130 Paraffin-embedded sections were deparaffinised, rehydrated, heated in 0.01 mol/l sodium citrate
131 buffer (pH 6.0) for antigen retrieval, and treated with 3% hydrogen peroxide for 10 min to block
132 endogenous peroxidase activity. After washing with PBS three times and blocking in 5% bovine
133 serum albumin for 30 min, the sections were incubated in the primary antibody solution containing
134 the rabbit anti-TET1 antibody (1:1000), rabbit anti-N-Cadherin antibody (1:200), and rabbit anti-
135 E-cadherin antibody (1:50). Because we used TSA technique to enhance the fluorescent signal,
136 antibodies of the same species were acceptable in our experiment. The biotinylated secondary anti-
137 rabbit antibody was used to detect primary antibodies. The detection was performed with
138 Streptavidin-HRP D (DAB Map kit, Ventana Medical Systems), followed by incubation with 488
139 (cat# T20922) or 594 (cat# T20935) Tyramide Alexa Fluors (Invitrogen) prepared in the dark
140 according to the manufacturer's instructions. Sections were counterstained with DAPI.

141 **Image analysis**

142 Immunohistochemistry and immunofluorescence double staining experiments were analyzed with
143 a PerkinElmer Quantitative Pathology Imaging System in the Hunan Epigenetics Laboratory. This
144 imaging system includes the Mantra Quantitative Pathology Workstation (PerkinElmer,
145 CLS140089) for collecting staining data and PerkinElmer inForm software (PerkinElmer,
146 Hopkinton, MA, USA) for analysis. The scanned images were visually examined. The samples
147 with staining artifacts or with low quality were excluded. Image processing comprised the training

148 session and analysis session. InForm software was trained to identify regions of interest and used
149 to analyze the whole image. Three fields of view were randomly selected per slide to calculate the
150 expression levels and distribution of TET1, E-cadherin, and N-cadherin in the glandular
151 epithelium. The proportion of positive cells is calculated as the number of positive-staining cells
152 divided by the number of total glandular epithelial cells. The correlation between TET1 and EMT
153 markers expression in the endometrial epithelium (positive cell proportion) was analyzed by
154 Pearson correlation test.

155 **Cell culture and hypoxia treatment**

156 Ishikawa (ISK) cells (ZQ0472, Zhong Qiao Xin Zhou Biotechnology Co., Ltd, Shanghai, China)
157 come from well-differentiated human endometrial adenocarcinoma. The human endometrial
158 epithelial cell is hard to passage and transfect; endometrial stromal cells are the only cells to
159 survive after 3–4 generations *in vitro*. Therefore, ISK cells are widely used instead of human
160 endometrial glandular epithelial cells in studies of endometriosis (Guay & Akoum, 2007; Cho et
161 al., 2016). ISK cells were cultured in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium/Nutrient Mixture F-
162 12 (DMEM/F12) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) and 1% penicillin-
163 streptomycin in 5% CO₂ incubators at 37°C until 70% confluence was reached. To ensure adequate
164 nutrients and growth factors, the medium was renewed 1 h prior to hypoxia treatment. Thereafter,
165 ISK cells were cultured under hypoxia (5% O₂) or normoxia (20% O₂) conditions for 4, 8, and 24
166 h.

167 **Gene transfection**

168 ISK cells were seeded in six-well plates for 24 h to reach approximately 70% confluence and

169 transfected with TET1 or the negative control plasmid (GenScript Biotech Corporation;
170 Piscataway, NJ, USA) using Lipofectamine (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA), according to the
171 manufacturer's protocol. In Brief, we used the QIAGEN^R kit to purify and extract the plasmid.
172 Then, 1–4 µg of plasmid DNA and Lipofectamine solution were mixed in serum-reduced medium
173 and added to the ISK cells. After 6 h of incubation, fresh medium was added. For TET1
174 downregulation, TET1-targeting siRNAs and the negative control (NC) were obtained from
175 Ribobio (Guangzhou, China). The RNA interference (RNAi) experiments were performed
176 following the manufacturer's protocol. First, the TET1 siRNA and NC siRNAs were each mixed
177 with RNA transfection buffer (Ribo FECT CP) and then added to ISK cell medium. After 48 h,
178 western blotting was performed to determine the transfection efficiency.

179 **Protein extraction and western blotting analysis**

180 Total proteins were extracted from cells using RIPA lysis buffer and phosphatase inhibitors. All
181 lysates were centrifuged at $12,000 \times g$ for 20 min. The supernatants were collected, and the protein
182 concentrations were determined by the Bicinchonic Acid (BCA) protein assay kit (Beyotime
183 Biotechnology, Shanghai, China). Proteins were mixed with the same amount of loading buffer
184 and boiled for 5 min. The samples were then resolved by Sodium dodecyl-sulfate polyacrylamide
185 gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE), transferred to PVDF membranes, incubated with 5% fat-free
186 milk, and hatched with the following primary antibodies at 4°C overnight: N-cadherin, E-cadherin,
187 TET1, HIF-2 α , and HIF-1 α (Abcam, Cambridge, UK). The membranes were washed with TBST
188 three times for 15 min, and then incubated in a secondary antibody at 37°C for 1.5 h. The blots
189 were analyzed by a chemiluminescence system (Millipore, USA). These experiments were

190 repeated three times, and the average values of the blot bands were calculated.

191 **Co-immunoprecipitation**

192 Co-immunoprecipitation was carried out to identify protein–protein interactions. Cells were
193 collected after exposure to hypoxia. Cell pellets were lysed in RIPA lysis buffer containing
194 phosphatase inhibitors. 750 μ l of the cell lysates were incubated with 2 μ g of antibodies (rabbit
195 HIF-2 α , mouse HIF-1 α , and rabbit TET1) overnight at 4°C. Meanwhile, β -actin, rabbit IgG, and
196 mouse IgG (Proteintech, Wuhan, China) were used as the input and negative controls, respectively,
197 for the experiments. On the second day, each group was mixed with 20 μ l of Protein G Plus/Protein
198 A Agarose Suspension (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Santa Cruz, CA, USA) and the solution
199 was softly shook at 4°C for 2 h. To separate agarose beads, these mixtures were centrifuged at
200 3000 rpm for 3 min at 4°C. The supernatant was transferred to a new tube on ice, and the beads
201 were eluted again with lysis buffer. The total eluted supernatants were washed 5 times,
202 resuspended in 1 \times loading buffer, and boiled for 5 min at 100°C before western blotting.

203 **Statistical analysis**

204 Statistical analysis of data was performed by one-way ANOVA using SPSS 22.0 software (SPSS
205 Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). All experiments were repeated three times. The results are shown as the
206 mean \pm standard deviation (SD). A P value of <0.05 was considered statistically significant.

207

208 **Results**

209 **Accompanied with TET1 upregulation, EMT might occur in endometrial epithelial cells of**
210 **ovarian endometriosis**

211 To evaluate the expression and localization of TET1 and EMT markers, E-cadherin and N-
212 cadherin, in endometriosis, we performed IHC and immunofluorescence double staining in human
213 endometrial tissues. Since the morphology of stromal cells in the ovarian endometriomas is much
214 different from that in the normal endometria and eutopic endometria, we only analyzed the
215 glandular epithelial cells in the three groups.

216 The expression of TET1 and EMT markers in the glandular epithelium of normal endometria,
217 eutopic endometria, and ovarian endometriomas was analyzed by IHC. **Figure 2A-R** show the
218 representative IHC results. **Table 2** illustrates the expression of TET1 and EMT markers. The
219 proportions of cells positively stained for TET1 or N-cadherin in the glandular epithelium of the
220 eutopic endometria and ovarian endometriomas were significantly higher than those in the normal
221 endometria, and the number of E-cadherin–positive cells was significantly lower in the glandular
222 epithelium from eutopic endometria and ovarian endometriomas than those in the normal
223 endometria (**Figure 2S-U**). The normal ovary tissue has a low expression of TET1 (supplementary
224 Figure 1). Moreover, to demonstrate whether the demethylation enzyme TET1 was activated in
225 endometriosis, we explored the expression of 5-hmC, which is an important marker for the
226 activated demethylation process. **Figure 2V** shows that the ovarian endometriomas have higher 5-
227 hmC levels ($5.15 \pm 1.488\%$ of total DNA) than eutopic endometria ($3.33 \pm 0.876\%$ of total DNA,
228 $p < 0.05$) and normal endometria ($3.5 \pm 0.881\%$ of total DNA, $p < 0.05$). All in all, these data suggest
229 that TET1 is upregulated and EMT may occur in the glandular epithelium of endometriosis.

230 Immunofluorescence double staining was performed to compare the localization of TET1 and
231 EMT markers. Consistent with the IHC results, in eutopic endometria and normal endometria,

232 TET1 and N-cadherin were mainly expressed in the stromal cells and barely expressed in the
233 glandular epithelial cells. However, in the ovarian endometriomas, TET1 and N-cadherin were
234 both expressed in the glandular epithelial cells. Furthermore, the distribution of TET1 was more
235 obvious in the cytoplasm or nuclear of N-cadherin-positive cells (**Figure 2FF-NN**), not E-
236 cadherin-positive cells (**Figure 2W-EE**). Ovarian endometriotic lesions (**Figure 2LL-NN**) had
237 more TET1 and N-cadherin co-localized cells compared to eutopic endometria (**Figure 2II-KK**)
238 and normal endometria (**Figure 2FF-HH**). The large amount of co-localized cells suggests a close
239 relationship between TET1 and N-cadherin. In addition, a correlation analysis was applied to the
240 proportions of cells that were positively stained for TET1 and N-cadherin/E-cadherin in the
241 epithelium (**Figure 2OO-PP**), which showed that TET1 was positively correlated with N-cadherin
242 and negatively correlated with E-cadherin. Our findings suggest that the demethylation enzyme
243 TET1 may play a role in the EMT pathological process of endometriosis.

244 **Hypoxia alters the expression of HIFs, TET1 and EMT markers**

245 Although various epigenetic mechanisms have been demonstrated to regulate EMT under hypoxia
246 status (Wu et al., 2012; Tsai & Wu, 2014), the role of the DNA demethylation enzyme TET1 in
247 regulating hypoxia-induced EMT in endometriosis remains largely unknown. Therefore, we
248 investigated the expression of TET1, HIFs (HIF-1 α and HIF-2 α), and EMT markers (E-cadherin,
249 N-cadherin, and vimentin) in ISK cells exposed to 5% O₂ for 0 h, 4 h, 8 h and 24 h. As shown in
250 **Figure 3**, the expression of TET1, HIF-1 α , HIF-2 α , and vimentin increased significantly and the
251 expression of E-cadherin decreased significantly after hypoxia treatment for 8 h and 24 h,
252 especially for 24 h. N-cadherin expression peaked at 8 h after hypoxic treatment and went down

253 at 24 h, we presumed N-cadherin might be transiently triggered by hypoxia. Homeostasis should
254 work to reverse the hypoxia condition, and genes may be activated in different time period of
255 hypoxia during this process (Deret et al., 2004; Javaid et al., 2013; Song et al., 2019). Hence, the
256 time point with the maximal response was selected, and vimentin was chosen as a mesenchymal
257 marker in the following experiences. Our findings indicate that hypoxia activates TET1 expression
258 and the EMT.

259 **TET1 overexpression may promote EMT, and knockdown of TET1 mitigates hypoxia-** 260 **induced EMT in ISK cells**

261 To evaluate the role of TET1 in hypoxia-induced endometrial EMT, we successfully established
262 TET1-overexpressing ISK cells under normal conditions and TET1 down-regulation ISK cells
263 under hypoxia conditions. As seen in **Figure 4**, western blotting indicated that the expression of
264 vimentin was increased and the expression of E-cadherin was decreased by upregulation of TET1
265 under normoxia. In addition, hypoxia-induced EMT, characterized by the repression of E-cadherin
266 and the upregulation of vimentin, was abolished by TET1 knockdown. These results reveal that
267 TET1 plays a crucial role in hypoxia-induced EMT.

268 **Knockdown of HIF-2 α inhibits hypoxia-induced EMT and TET1 expression in ISK cells**

269 To investigate the mechanism of TET1 in the regulation of hypoxia-induced EMT, hypoxia-
270 induced HIF-2 α expression was inhibited by a specific siRNA for 48 h. Western blotting analysis
271 confirmed the down-expression of HIF-2 α . Knockdown of HIF-2 α mitigated the activation of
272 TET1 and EMT under hypoxia in ISK cells (**Figure 5A and Figure 5C-F**), indicating that HIF-
273 2 α is a regulator of TET1 expression and the EMT under hypoxia. Xiong et al. reported that HIF-

274 1α also induced EMT in endometrial epithelial cells under hypoxia (Xiong et al., 2016). Therefore,
275 we conducted chromatin immunoprecipitation experiments, which showed that the anti-TET1
276 antibody pulled down HIF-2 α and TET1, not HIF-1 α , and the anti-HIF-2 α antibody pulled down
277 both TET1 and HIF-2 α . This implied that HIF-2 α , not HIF-1 α , is directly or indirectly bound to
278 the TET1 protein (**Figure 5B**). Reporter gene assay demonstrated that the promoter region of the
279 TET1 gene was activated by hypoxia/HIF-2 α (Tsai et al., 2014). All these results indicate that HIF-
280 2 α may serve as a transcription activator in ISK cells to regulate TET1 involving hypoxia-induced
281 EMT.

282

283 **Discussion**

284 Aberrant DNA methylation may be associated with the pathogenesis of endometriosis (Arosh et
285 al., 2015; Koukoura, Sifakis & Spandidos, 2016; Li et al., 2017; Juanqing et al., 2019). TET1-
286 mediated DNA hydroxymethylation is a crucial mechanism of DNA demethylation (Jeschke,
287 Collignon & Fuks, 2016). The balance between methylation and demethylation is important for
288 gene expression and cellular environmental homeostasis (Song & He, 2012; Yang et al., 2015).
289 However, the demethylation modification in endometriosis has not yet been well studied. Our
290 study shows for the first time that the elevated expression of the demethylation enzyme TET1 may
291 be associated with the activated EMT phenotype in the epithelia of endometriotic lesions, which
292 may provide a novel insight into the pathogenesis of EMs.

293 Genome-wide DNA hypomethylation occurs in many diseases (Ehrlich, 2009; Song & He,
294 2012; Lim et al., 2015). 5-hmC is a critical epigenetic modification marker that plays a noteworthy

295 role in regulating gene expression (Lorsbach et al., 2003; Mariani et al., 2014; Jeschke, Collignon
296 & Fuks, 2016). Our study had some consistency with the report by Roca (Roca et al., 2016).
297 Although Roca et al. showed that TET1 was down-regulated in endometriotic tissues, the
298 contribution of TET1 expression from each component of the endometrium (epithelium or stroma)
299 is unknown. Endometriosis is an estrogen-dependent disease. Roca et al. found that global 5-hmC
300 was upregulated in endometriotic tissues and TET1 was upregulated in endometrial epithelial cell
301 line treated with estradiol, which supports our study and suggests that TET1 in epithelial cells may
302 affect the expression levels of 5-hmC globally or locally. It is worth noting that the stromal cells
303 are more loosely arranged in the ovarian endometriomas compared to the normal endometria and
304 eutopic endometria. In addition, the endometriotic stromal and epithelial cells have different
305 molecular expression profiles (Logan, Yango & Tran, 2018; Noë et al., 2018), and the
306 endometriotic epithelial cells might originate from endometrial epithelial cells, whereas the origin
307 of endometriotic stromal cells remains to be investigated (Matsuzaki & Darcha, 2012). Hence, we
308 focused on the endometrial epithelium, which might play a specific and dynamic role in the
309 pathogenesis of endometriosis (Logan, Yango & Tran, 2018; Noë et al., 2018). A recent study
310 showed that decreased TET1 expression led to 5-hmC loss in ISK cells (Lv et al., 2017). We need
311 to explore the distribution of 5hmC in endometriosis, especially in the epithelia, and the specific
312 gene whose promoter is enriched with 5-hmC in future studies.

313 TET1 was mainly expressed in stromal cells but not epithelial cells in the normal and eutopic
314 endometria, whereas the epithelial expression of TET1 expression was ubiquitous and stromal
315 staining was scattered in ovarian endometriotic lesions. What's more, we showed a significant

316 inverse expression between TET1 and the epithelial marker E-cadherin and a positive correlation
317 between the expression of TET1 and the mesenchymal marker N-cadherin. Therefore, our study
318 demonstrates for the first time that the enhanced epithelial expression of TET1 in ectopic lesions
319 may play a crucial role in the EMT phenotype of endometriosis while the role of TET1 in stromal
320 cells needs to be further investigated. Our research may lay the foundation for this new
321 demethylation mechanism of endometriosis. The localization of TET1 in both the nucleus and
322 cytoplasm was surprising since TET1 is a nuclear protein. However, the similar subcellular
323 localization of TET1 was also shown in prostate, gastric cancer, hippocampus neurons and so on
324 (Hsu et al., 2012; Kaas et al., 2013; Fu et al., 2014; Han et al., 2017). TET genes localize in the
325 cytoplasm of neurons to sustain cell survival (Mi et al., 2015) and localize in the cytoplasm of
326 colorectal cancer cells to promote tumor metastasis (Huang et al., 2016). The variations of TET1
327 immunostaining results indicate a possible regulation of TET1 subcellular localization by still
328 unclear signaling pathways.

329 Hypoxia is an important factor of the endometriosis microenvironment (Becker et al., 2008;
330 Wu, Hsiao & Tsai, 2019). Hypoxia can induce epigenetic changes in tumor cells, whereas hypoxia-
331 induced epigenetic changes in endometriosis haven't been reported yet (Zhou et al., 2006;
332 Shahrzad et al., 2007). In our study, we showed for the first time that hypoxia/HIF-2 α activated
333 TET1 expression, and TET1 knockdown mitigated hypoxia-induced EMT in ISK cells. Co-
334 immunoprecipitation revealed that HIF-2 α , not HIF-1 α , was bound to the TET1 protein in ISK
335 cells. Therefore, we did not further explore the role of HIF-1 α in our study. This co-
336 immunoprecipitation result of TET1 and HIF-1 α is different from the data reported by Tsai et al.

337 (Tsai et al., 2014) and Cheng et al. (Cheng et al., 2018). Tsai et al. showed the interaction of TET1
338 and HIF-1a based on the 293 T cell line while Cheng et al. showed the same interaction based on
339 the cells in mouse prefrontal cortex. Whereas, our study was performed on the ISK cells which
340 could have different protein-protein interactions. What's more, Tsai et al. concluded that HIF-2 α
341 was the major regulator of TET1 expression under hypoxia (Tsai et al., 2014). In this study, the
342 HIF-2a knockdown didn't eliminate the expression of TET1, which might indicate the existence
343 of other regulators. Hu et al. reported microRNA-210 was involved in the regulation of TET1
344 under hypoxia status (Hu et al., 2018). Lin et al. showed HIF-1a could regulate the hypoxia-
345 induced expression of TET in hepatoblastoma HepG2 cells (Lin et al., 2017), whereas Tsai et al.
346 showed the HIF-1a knockdown had no effect on the TET1 expression in cancer cell lines (Tsai et
347 al., 2014). It will be explored in future studies. Combined with the reporter gene assay of HIF-2 α
348 and TET1 (Tsai et al., 2014), we speculate that the hypoxia microenvironment may induce the
349 EMT of endometrial epithelial cells via the activation of TET1 partly regulated by HIF-2 α . These
350 epithelial cells may pass through oviducts and implant into the ovarian surfaces, thus contributing
351 to the development of endometriosis.

352 Our study had several limitations. First, we used ISK cells for *in vitro* experiments instead of
353 the primary endometrial epithelial cells. The primary endometrial epithelial cells could hardly
354 survive in primary culture. Therefore, ISK cells were used in numerous studies of endometriosis
355 (Cho et al., 2016b; Lee et al., 2018; Matson et al., 2018; Choi et al., 2018). The ISK cell is a well-
356 differentiated human endometrial adenocarcinoma cell line. It retains the phenotype of endometrial
357 epithelial cells, bears estrogen and progesterone receptors, and displays a similar molecular

358 expression profile as endometrium (Du et al., 2018). However, our study will be more convincing
359 if we use more cell lines. With the advancement of technology and improvement of experimental
360 approaches, a deep understanding of the roles of TET1 in endometriosis will be possible. Secondly,
361 the precise role and mechanism of TET1 in regulating the EMT remain to be investigated. The
362 TET1 target gene and the correlation of TET1 with the EMT transcriptional factors slug, snails,
363 and twist need to be elucidated in future studies. The interaction between TET1 and HIF-2 α needs
364 to be demonstrated by additional experiments, such as GST pull-down and yeast two-hybrid
365 experiments. Thirdly, although 5-hmC detection is very expensive, analyzing more samples for
366 overall 5-hmC expression in the epithelia and identifying the specific gene enriched with 5-hmC
367 are still needed to study the pathogenesis of endometriosis.

368

369 **Conclusion**

370 To our knowledge, we are the first to explore the relationship between EMT and the demethylation
371 enzyme TET1 in endometriosis. Hypoxia induces the expression of TET1, mediated by
372 transcription factor HIF-2 α , which may promote the EMT of endometriosis. These data provide a
373 new understanding of the pathological process of endometriosis, which may advance knowledge
374 of the epigenetic mechanism as well as the therapeutic approach towards endometriosis.

375

376

377 **Authors' Contribution**

378 J.W., X.L., X.F. conceived and designed the experiments. J.W., X.L., H.H., M.Z., H.H., X.F.

379 performed and acquired the data. J.W., X.X., X.F. analyzed the data. J.W., X.L., H.H., X.F. drafted
380 and critically evaluated the article.

381

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387

388 **Conflict of interest**

389 The authors declare no conflict of interest regarding this paper.

390

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392 None

393

394 **References**

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- 542

Figure 1

An infographic of this work

Hypoxia may increase TET1 expression, mediated by HIF-2 α , thus potentially inducing the EMT of endometrial epithelial cells and contributing to the development of endometriosis

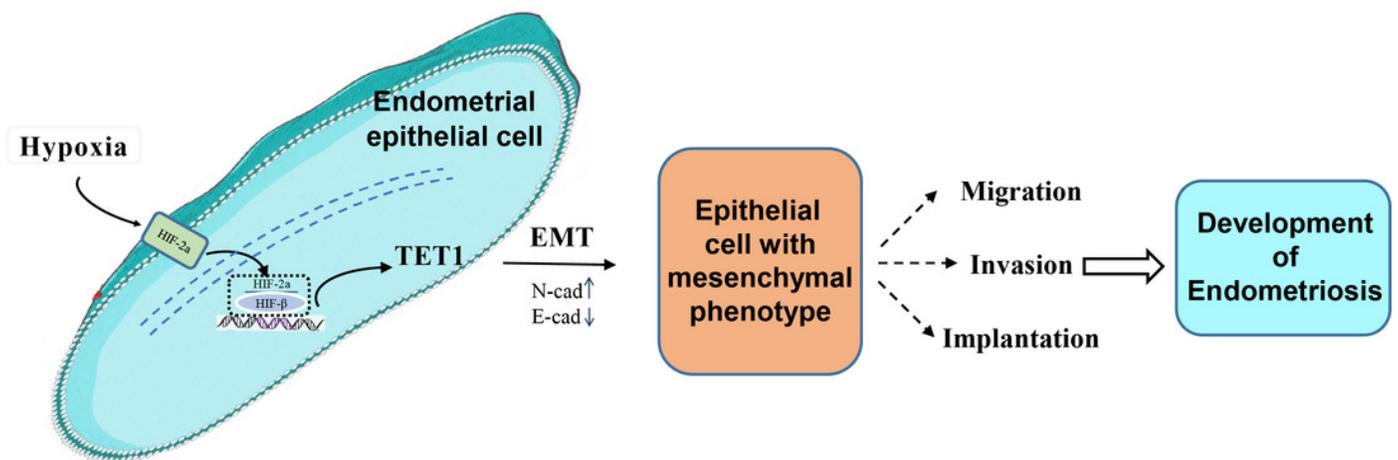


Figure 2

Accompanied with the TET1 upregulation, EMT might occur in endometrial epithelial cells of ovarian endometriosis.

Fig. 1 Accompanied with TET1 upregulation, EMT might occur in endometrial epithelial cells of ovarian endometriosis. **(A-R)** Immunohistochemistry for TET1 and EMT markers (E-cadherin and N-cadherin) in epithelial gland cells of the normal endometria (Normal), eutopic endometria (Eutopic) and ovarian endometrioma (Ectopic). Left: Magnification×100, Right: Magnification×200. **(S-U)** The proportions of cells positively stained for TET1, E-cadherin or N-cadherin in Normal, Eutopic and Ectopic groups (*p< 0.05 versus normal endometria; #p< 0.05 versus eutopic endometria). (V) Expression of global 5-hmC in the total genomic DNA (*p< 0.05 versus normal endometria; #p< 0.05 versus eutopic endometria). **(W-EE)** Representative double immunofluorescence images for TET1 and E-cadherin in Normal (W-CC), Eutopic (Z-BB) and Ectopic (CC-EE) groups. **(FF-NN)** Representative double immunofluorescence images for TET1 and N-cadherin in Normal (FF-HH), Eutopic (II-KK) and Ectopic (LL-NN) groups. (OO-PP) The correlation between TET1 and EMT markers expression in the endometrial epithelium is confirmed by quantitative analysis of the double staining immunofluorescence. Magnification×200 (Left: red luminescence represents TET1. Yellow luminescence represents E-cadherin. Right: red luminescence represents TET1. Green luminescence represents N-cadherin). Normal: normal endometria, Eutopic: eutopic endometria, Ectopic: ovarian endometriomas.

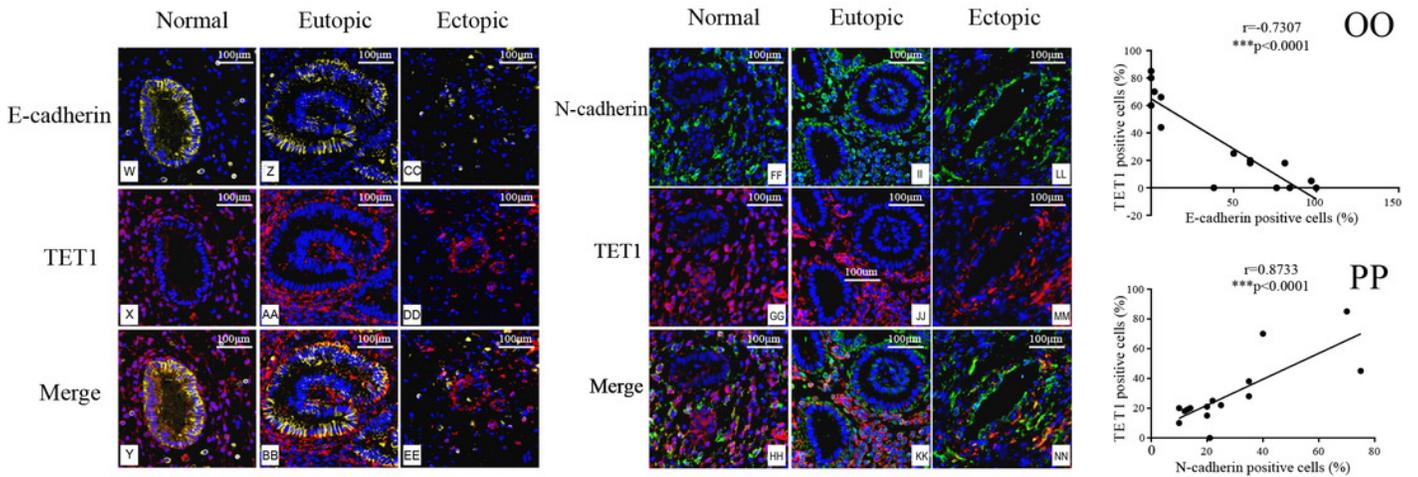
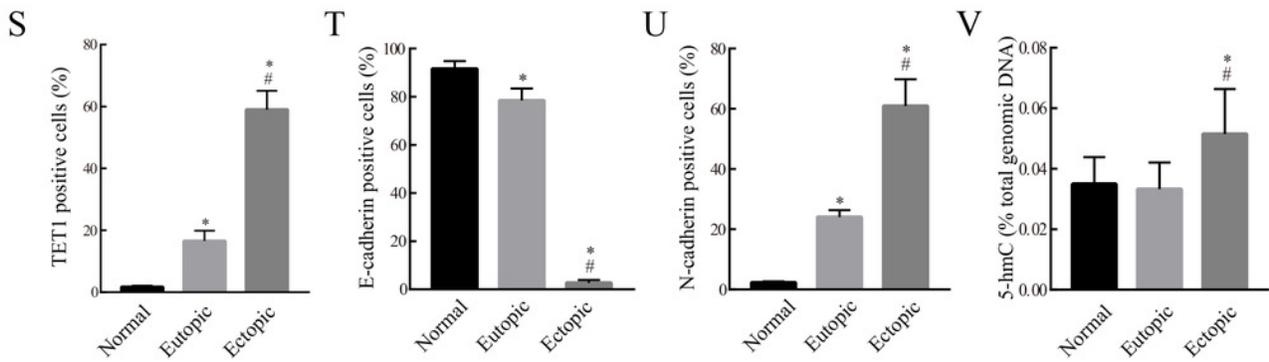
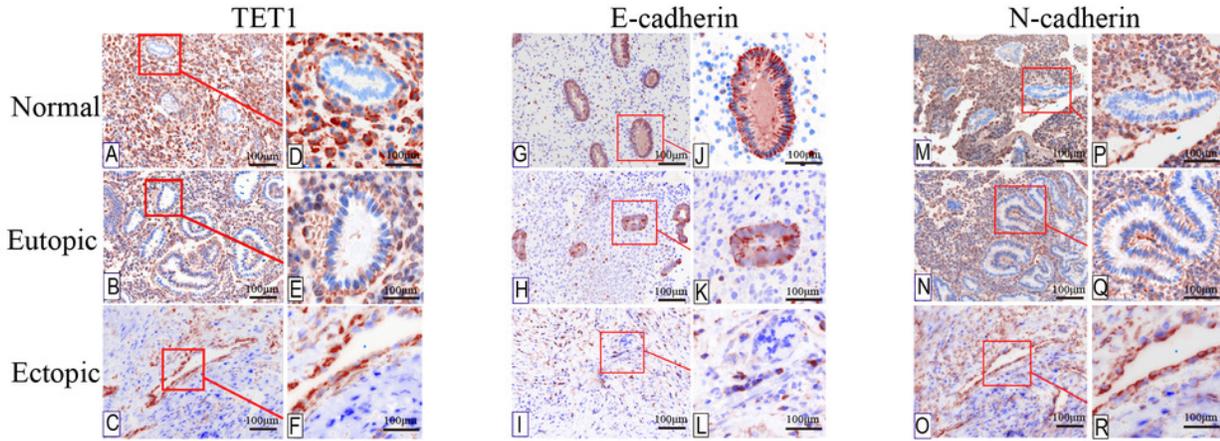


Figure 3

Hypoxia alters the expression of HIFs, TET1 and EMT markers.

(A-B) Western blotting analysis showed the expression of HIF-1 α , HIF-2 α , TET1 and EMT markers (E-Cad: E-cadherin, N-Cad: N-cadherin and Vim: Vimentin) in Ishikawa (ISK) cell cultured under hypoxia at different time point (0 h, 4 h, 8 h and 24 h) (* $p < 0.05$ versus normoxia; # $p < 0.05$ versus hypoxia for 4 h; & $p < 0.05$ versus hypoxia for 8 h).

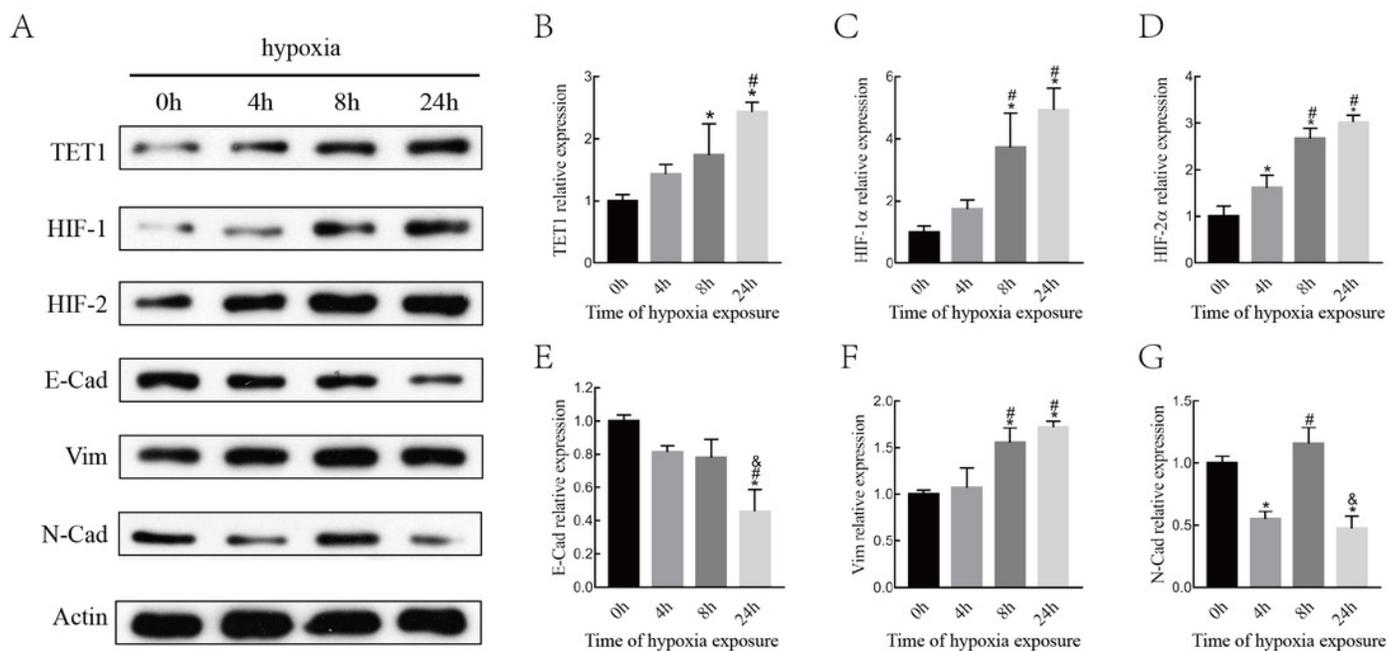


Figure 4

TET1 overexpression may promote EMT and knockdown of TET1 mitigates hypoxia-induced EMT.

(A, B) Western blotting analysis showed the expression of vimentin (Vim) and E-cadherin (E-Cad) in cells transfected with TET1 expression plasmid (TET1) or empty vectors (NC) under normoxia conditions, and cells transfected with TET1 small interfering RNA (si-TET1) or negative control (si-NC) under hypoxia conditions. (* $p < 0.05$ versus normoxia+NC; # $p < 0.05$ versus normoxia+TET1; & $p < 0.05$ versus hypoxia+si-NC).

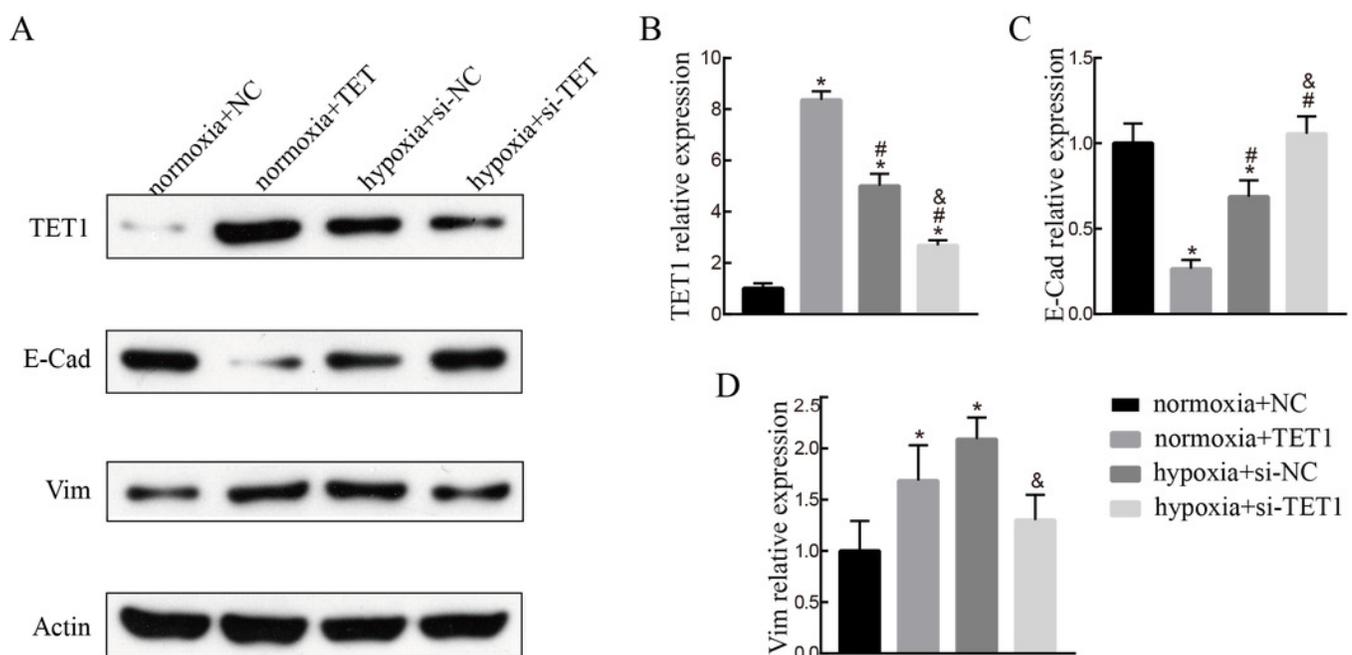


Figure 5

Knockdown of HIF-2 α inhibits hypoxia-induced EMT and TET1 expression.

(A, C) Western blotting showed the expression of TET1, HIF-2 α , vimentin (Vim) and E-cadherin (E-Cad) in cells under normoxia conditions and cells transfected with HIF-2 α small interfering RNA (si-HIF-2 α) or negative control (si-NC) under hypoxia conditions (* $p < 0.05$ versus normoxia or normoxia+si-NC; # $p < 0.05$ versus hypoxia or hypoxia+si-NC). **(B)** Co-immunoprecipitation of TET1, HIF-2 α or HIF-1 α . Hypoxia treated ISK cells were lysed and immunoprecipitated by TET1, HIF-2 α , HIF-1 α and normal rabbit/mouse IgG antibodies, respectively. Cell lysates (input) and immunoprecipitated proteins (IP) were analyzed by Western blotting.

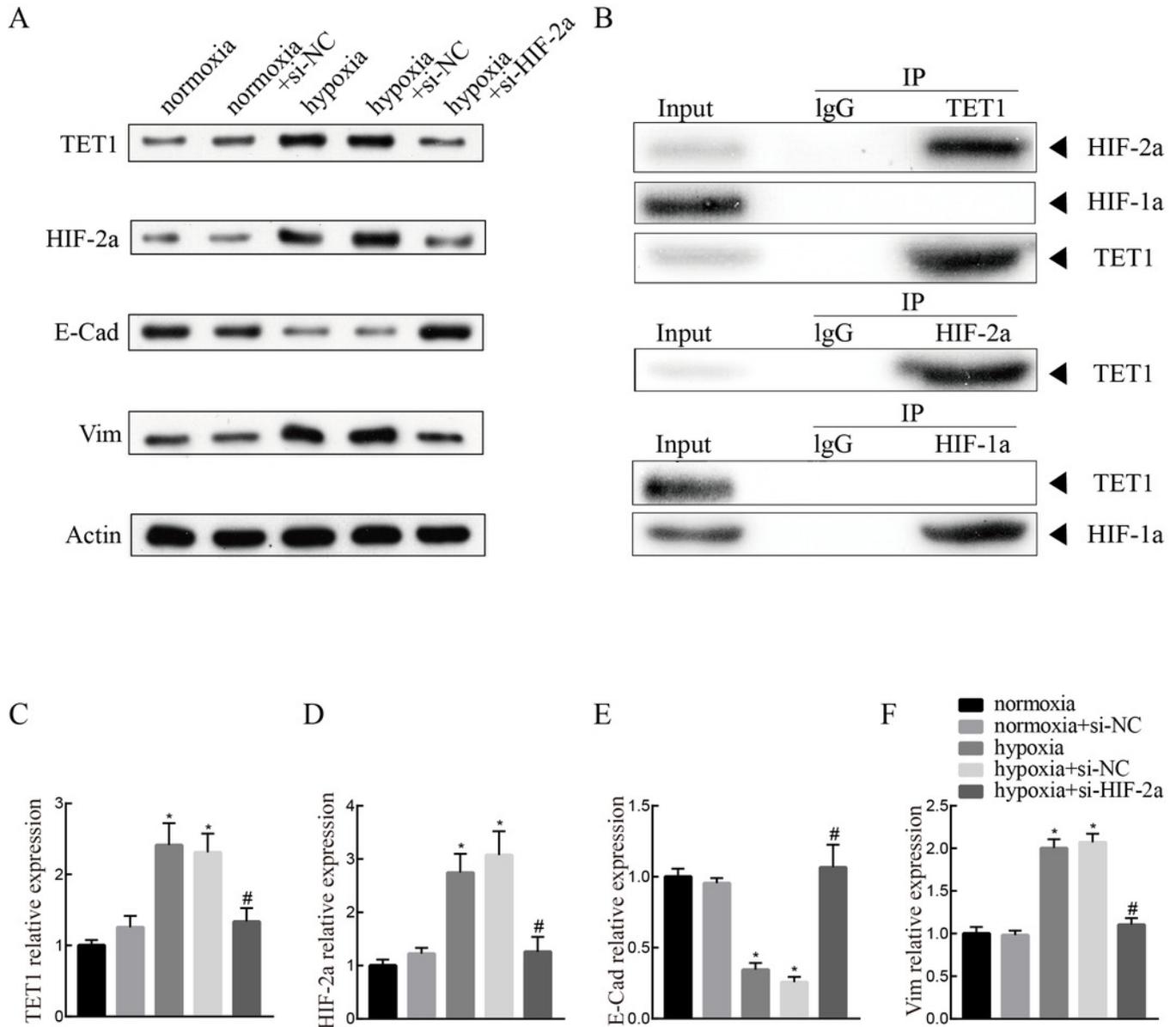


Table 1 (on next page)

Clinical characteristics of patients

Table 1 Clinical characteristics of patients.

	Immunohistochemistry samples		
	Normal endometria	Eutopic endometria	Ectopic endometria
case number	20	15	15
*age	35(27-41)	29(27-38)	29(27-38)
menstrual cycle phase	Early proliferation	Early proliferation	Early proliferation
#rASRM stage			
III	-	9	9
IV	-	6	6

Eutopic endometria were paired with ectopic endometria.

*Median (interquartile range).

rASRM (Revised American Society for Reproductive Medicine classification, 1997).

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Table 2 (on next page)

Expression profiles of TET1 and EMT markers were detected by immunohistochemistry in the epithelium of normal endometria, eutopic endometria, and ectopic endometria.

Table 2 Expression profiles of TET1 and EMT markers were detected by immunohistochemistry in the epithelia of normal endometria, eutopic endometria, and ectopic endometria.

Marker	Positive epithelial cells for marker, %			p-value (1 versus 2)	p-value (2 versus 3)	p-value (1 versus 3)
	Normal endometria, % (group1,n=15)	Eutopic endometria, % (group2,n=15)	Ectopic endometria, % (group3,n=15)			
E-cadherin	91.66±3.196	77.75±4.024	2.668±1.174	<0.05*	<0.01**	<0.01**
N-cadherin	2.235±0.339	24.11±2.237	60.98±8.858	<0.01**	<0.01**	<0.01**
TET1	1.668±0.438	16.57±3.308	59.03±6.042	<0.01**	<0.01**	<0.01**

*P<0.05, **P<0.01

All data are expressed as mean + SD.

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